Name: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_ Period: \_\_\_\_\_

**Unit 8 Notes, Part 2: Human Genetics**

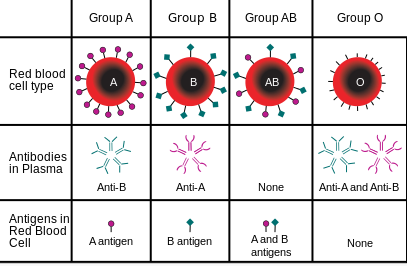
Ms. Ottolini, AP Biology

1. **What if there are more than two alleles for a particular gene?**
2. Sometimes there are more than two alleles for a particular gene. We call this inheritance pattern “multiple alleles.” For example, there are three alleles controlling human blood type—A, B, and O. Since A and B are both dominant to O, we often use the following symbols to denote the three alleles:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Allele** | **Symbol** |
| A | IA |
| B | IB |
| O | i |

1. An “A” allele codes for A type antigens (carbohydrates, proteins, glycoproteins or glycolipids) on the surface of your red blood cells. The A allele also codes for antibodies in your blood plasma (fluid) that can attach to B type antigens. These are called Anti-B antibodies.
2. A “B” allele codes for B type antigens on the surface of your red blood cells. The B allele also codes for antibodies in your blood plasma that can attach to A type antigens. These are called Anti-A antibodies.
3. An “O” allele does not code for any antigens but does code for both Anti-A and Anti-B antibodies in the blood plasma.
4. Every individual has two alleles for blood type. Because both A and B are dominant to O, an individual must receive two copies of the recessive O allele to have blood type O. Because A and B are codominant, an individual with blood type AB will have both A and B type antigens on the surface of his/her blood cells (but no antibodies). Below is a summary of the allele combinations, blood types, antigens present, and antibodies present.

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Allele Combination** | **Blood Type** | **Antigens on the Surface of Red Blood Cells** | **Antibodies in the Plasma** |
| AA / IA IA  Or  AO / IAi | A | A antigens | Anti-B Antibodies |
| BB / IB IB  Or  BO / IBi | B | B antigens | Anti-A Antibodies |
| AB / IA IB | AB | A and B antigens | None |
| OO / ii | O | None | Anti-A and Anti-B Antibodies |



1. Rh factor is also a part of your blood type. Individuals that are Rh positive (+) have an Rh factor antigen on the surface of their red blood cells, whereas individuals that are Rh negative (-) do not. However, individuals who are Rh negative (-) have Anti-Rh antibodies in their blood plasma.
2. If Rh factor is considered as well, there are 8 possible blood types: A+, A-, B+, B-, AB+, AB-, O+, and O-.
3. If a person receives a blood transfusion, they are given only red blood cells from the donor blood (not plasma). If the recipient has plasma antibodies that match with the antigens on the surface of the donor red blood cells, this will cause clumping in the blood called agglutination that can kill the recipient.
4. Because people with AB+ blood type have no antibodies in their blood plasma, they are considered the “universal recipient.” In other words, they can receive transfusions of blood from any blood type because there is no risk of agglutination.
5. Because people with O- blood type have no antigens on the surface of their red blood cells, they are considered the “universal donor.” In other words, they can donate blood to a recipient with any blood type because there is no risk of agglutination.
6. Back to genetics, below is an example Punnett square problem tracking the inheritance of blood type…

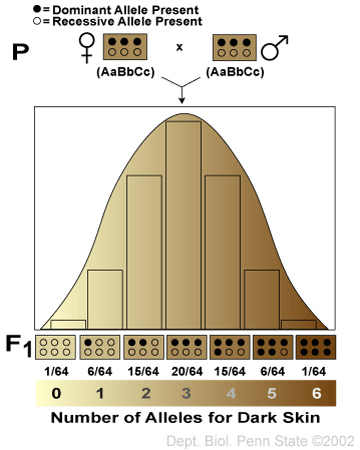
A woman has blood type A, but her father had blood type O. A man has blood type AB. If the man and woman get married and have children, what is the chance that their children will have blood type B?

*Note: The woman must have an A and an O allele because her father could only give her an O allele.*

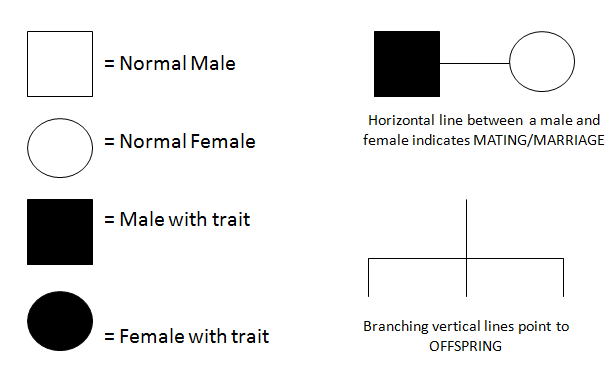
|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **A** | **O** |
| **A** | AA | AO |
| **B** | AB | BO |

Answer: Their children have a 25%(1/4) chance of having blood type B.

1. **What are some other “Non-Mendelian” patterns of inheritance seen in humans and other organisms?**
2. Some traits demonstrate pleiotropy, which is when one gene produces more than one phenotypic (physical) effect. For example, phenylketonuria is a human disease that is caused by one gene defect (mutation) but has effects on multiple systems. People with this disease lack the enzyme used to break down the amino acid phenylalanine. This results in cognitive deficits, smaller head size, and lighter hair color.
3. Another example of pleiotropy involves the dominant “frizzle” gene in chickens, which produces feathers that curl outward rather than lying flat against their bodies. In addition to causing abnormal feathers, this gene causes chickens to have abnormal body temperatures, higher metabolic and blood flow rates, greater digestive capacity, and lower egg-laying rates.
4. Some traits demonstrate polygenic inheritance, which is when more than one gene determines a phenotype (trait). The more genes control a particular trait the more variation there can be in the phenotypes (see graph to the left). This is the opposite of pleiotropy. Examples of traits determined by polygenic inheritance are height, weight, eye color, and skin pigmentation (see graph to the left).

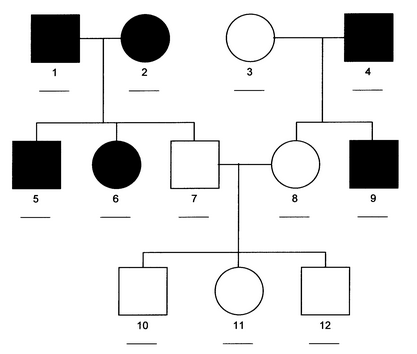


1. Some traits are controlled by a mixture of genes and environmental factors. These are called multifactorial traits. For example, weight in humans is controlled by a mixture of genes and diet. Also, hydrangeas (a type of flower) can be pink or blue depending on the pH of the soil (an environmental factor). In acidic soils, the hydrangea plant will produce blue flowers, while in basic soils, the hydrangea plant will produce pink flowers.
2. Some traits are controlled by DNA not found in the nucleus. Therefore, these traits follow a pattern of nonnuclear inheritance. Nonnuclear DNA can come from mitochondria or chloroplasts, which are randomly segregated to gametes during meiosis. In humans, the egg brings all the cytoplasm / organelles to the zygote (fertilized egg), so mitochondrial DNA comes solely from the mother.
3. **How can we track the inheritance of a trait through multiple generations?**
4. Scientists use pedigree charts to track the inheritance of a trait through multiple generations. You need to be able to analyze existing pedigrees and create pedigrees from information you are given about a family’s traits.
5. Below is a summary of the symbols used in a pedigree chart…



1. If a man or woman has one copy of an allele for a recessive trait, their square or circle may be half shaded (only on some pedigrees). This individual would be considered a “carrier,” meaning they do not “show” the trait but they can pass on the allele for the trait to their offspring.
2. There are four patterns of inheritance typically depicted on pedigree charts—autosomal dominant, autosomal recessive, sex-linked dominant (aka X-linked dominant), and sex-linked recessive (aka X-linked recessive).
3. Autosomal dominant traits are controlled by a dominant allele on an autosome (a non-sex chromosome). Pedigrees that follow this method of inheritance typically show a nearly even distribution of males and females with the trait and NO instances of children with the trait when neither parent displays the trait.

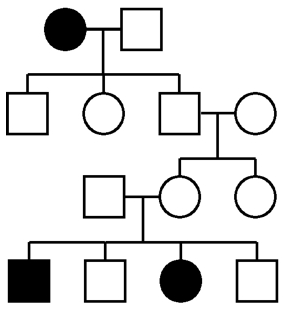
Example Pedigree:



1. Autosomal recessive traits are controlled by a recessive allele on an autosome. Pedigrees that follow this method of inheritance typically show a nearly even distribution of males and females with the trait and one or more instances of children with the trait when neither parent displays the trait (see arrow). This latter occurrence can be explained by both parents being carriers for a recessive allele, which they both passed on to their child. (Note: on the Punnett square below, let A = normal, and a = trait)

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **A** | **A** |
| **A** | AA | Aa |
| **A** | Aa | Aa |

Example Pedigree:

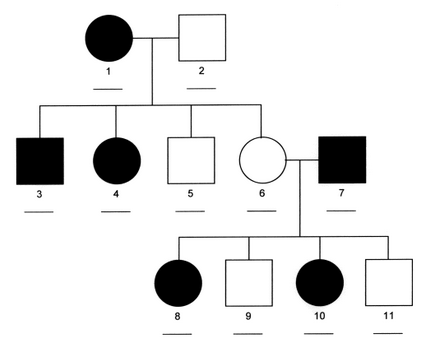


1. Sex-linked dominant traits are controlled by a dominant allele (usually on the X chromosome). Pedigrees that follow this method of inheritance will show that only female children of a father with the trait and a mother without the trait will have the trait. (Note: on the Punnett square below, let XA = trait and Xa = normal.)

*\*\*\*Note: For some reason, it is rare that the AP test will give you a sex-linked dominant pedigree!!!\*\*\**

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **XA** | **Y** |
| **Xa** | XA Xa | XaY |
| **Xa** | XA Xa | XaY |

Example Pedigree:



1. Sex-linked recessive traits are controlled by a recessive allele (usually on the X chromosome). Pedigrees that follow this method of inheritance will show more males with the trait than females. This is because males only need to receive one copy of the recessive allele to show the trait (because they only have one X chromosome). In contrast, females must receive two copies of the recessive allele to show the trait. If neither parent displays the trait (but the mother is a carrier), only male children can display the trait. Also, if only the mother displays the trait, only male children can display the triat. (Note: on the Punnett squares below, let XA = normal and Xa = trait)

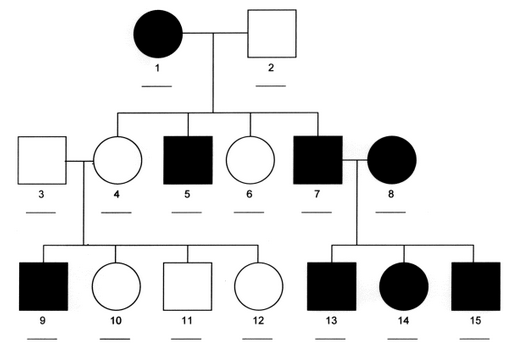
Case 1: Neither parent displays the trait (but the mother is a carrier)

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **XA** | **Y** |
| **XA** | XA XA | XAY |
| **Xa** | XA Xa | XaY |

Case 2: Only the mother displays the trait

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
|  | **XA** | **Y** |
| **Xa** | XA Xa | XaY |
| **Xa** | XA Xa | XaY |

Example Pedigree:



**Case #1**

**Case #2**

1. At any rate, when determining what pattern of inheritance is shown in a pedigree, you may have to try a system of trial and error. In this system you follow the steps listed below:

* Assign your alleles for a particular pattern of inheritance (see chart on the next page).
* Write the genotypes that would correspond to each individual on the pedigree for the chosen pattern of inheritance
* If all the genotypes “work,” this is the correct pattern of inheritance.

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Pattern of Inheritance** | **Alleles** | **Possible Genotypes and Associated Phenotypes** |
| Autosomal Dominant | A = trait  a = normal | AA = trait  Aa = trait  aa = normal |
| Autosomal Recessive | A = normal  a = trait | AA = normal  Aa = normal  aa = trait |
| Sex-linked Dominant | XA = trait  Xa = normal | XA XA  = female, trait  XA Xa = female, trait  Xa Xa  = female, normal  XAY = male, trait  XaY = male, normal |
| Sex-linked Recessive | XA = normal  Xa = trait | XA XA  = female, normal  XA Xa = female, normal  Xa Xa  = female, trait  XAY = male, normal  XaY = male, trait |